

GRID CONNECTED PV SYSTEM: Use of Single phase Inverter

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Abstract

This paper presents a single-phase five-level photovoltaic (PV) inverter topology for grid-connected PV systems with a novel pulsedwidth-modulated (PWM) control scheme. Two reference signals identical to each other with an offset equivalent to the amplitude of the triangular carrier signal were used to generate PWM signals for the switches. A digital PID control algorithm is implemented in Microcontroller to keep the current injected into the grid sinusoidal and to have high dynamic performance with rapidly changing atmospheric conditions. The inverter offers much less total harmonic distortion and can operate at near-unity power factor. The proposed system is verified through simulation and is implemented in a prototype, and the experimental results are compared with that with the conventional single-phase three-level grid-connected PWM inverter.

Index Terms— grid connected, photovoltaic (PV), proportional–integral (PI) current control, pulse width modulated (PWM) inverter.

I. INTRODUCTION

The demand for renewable energy has increased significantly over the years

because of shortage of fossil fuels and greenhouse effect. Among various types of renewable energy sources, solar energy and wind energy have become very popular and demanding due to advancement in power electronics techniques. Photovoltaic (PV) sources are used today in many applications as they have the advantages of being maintenance and pollution free. Solar-electric-energy demand has grown consistently by 20%–25% per annum over the past 20 years, which is mainly due to the decreasing costs and prices. This decline has been driven by the following factors:

- 1) An increasing efficiency of solar cells;
- 2) Manufacturing technology improvements; and
- 3) Economies of scale [1]. PV inverter,

Which is the heart of a PV system, is used to convert dc power obtained from PV modules into ac power to be fed into the grid. Improving the output waveform of the inverter reduces its respective harmonic content and, hence, the size of the filter used and the level of electromagnetic interference (EMI) generated by switching operation of the inverter [2]. In recent years, multilevel inverters have become more attractive for researchers and manufacturers due to their advantages over conventional

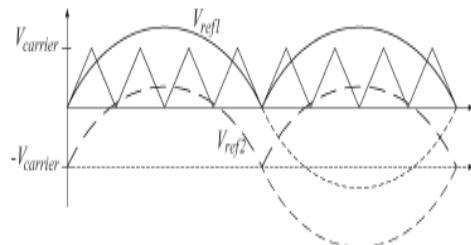
three-level pulse width-modulated (PWM) inverters.

They offer improved output waveforms, smaller filter size, lower EMI, lower total harmonic distortion (THD), and others. The three common topologies for multilevel inverters are as follows:

- 1) diode clamped (neutral clamped)
- 2) capacitor clamped (flying capacitors)
- 3) cascaded H-bridge inverter

In addition, several modulation and control strategies have been developed or adopted for multilevel inverters, including the following: multilevel sinusoidal (PWM), multilevel selective harmonic elimination, and spacevector modulation. A typical single-phase three-level inverter adopts full-bridge configuration by using approximate sinusoidal modulation technique as the power circuits. The output voltage then has the following three values: zero, positive ($+V_{dc}$), and negative ($-V_{dc}$) supply dc voltage (assuming that V_{dc} is the supply voltage). The harmonic components of the output voltage are determined by the carrier frequency and switching functions. Therefore, their harmonic reduction is limited to a certain degree [4]. To overcome this limitation, this paper presents a five-level PWM inverter whose output voltage can be represented in the following five levels: zero, $+1/2V_{dc}$, V_{dc} , $-1/2V_{dc}$, and $-V_{dc}$. As the number of output levels increases, the harmonic content can be

reduced. This inverter topology uses two reference signals, instead of one reference signal, to generate PWM signals for the switches. Both the reference signals V_{ref1} and V_{ref2} are identical to each other, except for an offset value equivalent to the amplitude of the carrier signal $V_{carrier}$, as shown in Fig. 1.



Ease of Use: The inverter is used in a PV system, a proportional–integral (PI) current control scheme is employed to keep the output current sinusoidal and to have high dynamic performance under rapidly changing atmospheric conditions and to maintain the power factor at near unity. Simulation and experimental results are presented to validate the proposed inverter configuration.

II. FIVE-LEVEL INVERTER TOPOLOGY AND PWM LAW

The proposed single-phase five-level inverter topology is shown in Fig. 2. The inverter adopts a full-bridge configuration with an auxiliary circuit [4]. PV arrays are connected to the inverter via a dc–dc boost converter. Because the proposed inverter is used in a grid-connected PV system, utility grid is used instead of load. The dc–dc boost converter is used

to step up inverter output voltage V_{inv} to be more than $\sqrt{2}$ of grid voltage V_g to ensure power flow from the PV arrays into the grid [19]. A filtering inductance L_f is used to filter the current injected into the grid. The injected current must be sinusoidal with low harmonic distortion. In order to generate sinusoidal current, sinusoidal PWM is used because it is one of the most effective methods. Sinusoidal PWM is obtained by comparing a high-frequency carrier with a low-frequency sinusoid, which is the modulating or reference signal. The carrier has a constant period; therefore, the switches have constant switching frequency.

The switching instant is determined from the crossing of the carrier and the modulating signal. A. *Sinusoidal PWM Law* A fundamental period in Fig. 3 consists of p pulses whose widths vary sinusoidally throughout the cycle to give the fundamental component of frequency. The basis of equivalence between the desired sinusoid and the actual pulsed waveform is taken to be volt–seconds, as shown in Fig. 3, i.e., $A_{s1} = A_{p1}$ and $A_{s2} = A_{p2}$. One of these pulses, the general k th pulse, is char

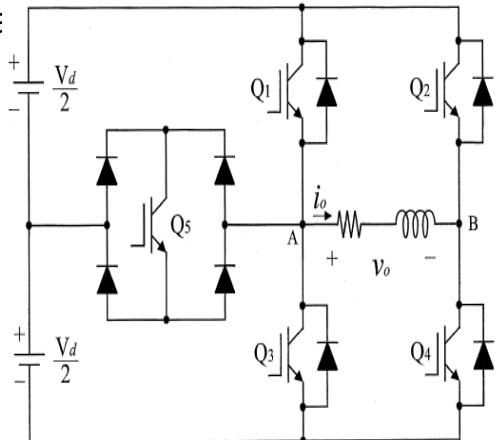


Figure 2 Configuration of the proposed single-phase five-level PWM inverter.

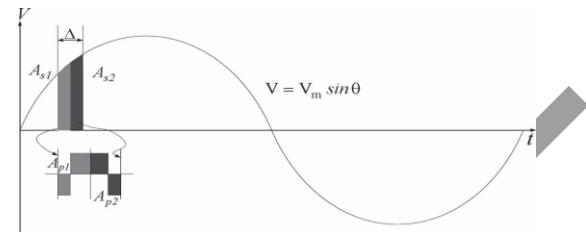


Fig. 3. Basis of equivalence for sinusoidal PWM

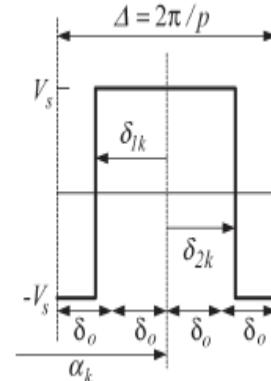


Fig. 4. Characterization of pulse.

The switching period Δ and the frequency modulation ratio p are, respectively, given by

$$\Delta = 2\pi/p \quad (1)$$

$$p = fs/f_1 \quad (2)$$

where fs is the switching frequency and f_1 is the fundamental frequency. The quarter period of pulse δ_0 is given as

$$\delta_0 = \Delta/4. \quad (3)$$

α_k is the position from the origin of the fundamental period of the midpoint of the period Δ . The angles δ_{1k} and δ_{2k} are the modulating angles which vary throughout the cycle, and it is to

calculate these angles that a modulation law must be derived.

Consider first the average voltages V_{1k} and V_{2k} during the two halves of the modulating pulse

$$V_{1k} = (Vs) \{ \delta_{1k} - (2\delta_0 - \delta_{1k}) \} / 2\delta_0 \quad (4)$$

$$\therefore V_{1k} = (Vs)(\delta_{1k} - \delta_0) / \delta_0 \quad (5)$$

$$= (Vs)\beta_{1k} \quad (6)$$

$$\text{where } \delta_{1k} = (\delta_{1k} - \delta_0) / \delta_0 \quad (7)$$

and, similarly

$$V_{2k} = (Vs)\beta_{2k} \quad (8)$$

Where

$$\beta_{2k} = (\delta_{2k} - \delta_0) / \delta_0. \quad (9)$$

The volt-second As_1 is the half-pulsewidth of the sine wave and is given according to Fig. 4 by

$$As_1 = \alpha k f$$

$$\alpha k - 2\delta_0$$

$$Vm \sin \theta d\theta \quad (10)$$

$$= 2Vm \sin \delta_0 \sin(\alpha k - \delta_0). \quad (11)$$

However, $\sin \delta_0 \rightarrow \delta_0$ when δ_0 is small

$$\therefore As_1 = 2\delta_0 Vm \sin(\alpha k - \delta_0) \quad (12)$$

and, similarly,

$$As_2 = 2\delta_0 Vm \sin(\alpha k + \delta_0). \quad (13)$$

For the corresponding volt-second Ap_1 , in the PWM waveform,

$$Ap_1 = 2\delta_0 V_{1k} \quad (14)$$

$$\therefore Ap_1 = 2\delta_0 \beta_{1k} (Vs) \quad (15)$$

and, similarly,

$$Ap_2 = 2\delta_0 \beta_{2k} (Vs). \quad (16)$$

For equivalence of volt-seconds from which the modulation law can be derived, we require that

$$As_1 = Ap_1 \quad (17)$$

$$As_2 = Ap_2. \quad (18)$$

By equating (12) and (14), and (13) and (16)

$$\beta_{1k} = M \sin(\alpha k - \delta_0) \quad (19)$$

and, similarly,

$$\beta_{2k} = M \sin(\alpha k + \delta_0) \quad (20)$$

$$\text{where } M \text{ is the "modulation index" and } M = Vm/Vs. \quad (21)$$

Equation (21) can be expressed in terms of amplitude of carrier signal V_c by replacing V_s with V_c . Because, in this topology, two identical reference signals are used, $V_s = 2V_c$ and $V_m = V_{ref1} = V_{ref2}$. If $M > 1$, higher harmonics in the phase waveform are obtained. Therefore, M is maintained between zero and one. If the amplitude of the reference signal is increased to be higher than the amplitude of the carrier signal, i.e., $M > 1$, this will lead to overmodulation. Large values of M in sinusoidal PWM techniques lead to full overmodulation [20]. Fig. 6 shows the carrier and reference signals for different values of M . Equations (19) and (20) define the modulation law, which is more M . (a) $M = 0.3$. (b) $M = 0.5$. (c) $M = 0.7$. (d) $M = 1.2$. commonly expressed in terms of δ_{1k} and δ_{2k} , by substituting from (7) and (9) to give

$$\delta_{1k} = \delta_0 [1 + M \sin(\alpha k - \delta_0)] \quad (22)$$

$$\delta_{2k} = \delta_0 [1 + M \sin(\alpha k + \delta_0)]. \quad (23)$$

Thus, the switching angles δ_{1k} and δ_{2k} for the k th pulse can be calculated from

(22) and (23) in terms of modulation index M and angles αk and $\delta 0$ which depend upon the fundamental frequency and frequency ratio. *B. Harmonic Spectrum of Sinusoidal PWM Waveform*
The voltage harmonics produced by the sinusoidal PWM can be computed by first calculating the harmonics due to the k th pulse alone, A_{nk} , and then summing the harmonic contributions of all p pulses

Switches S_1 – S_3 will be switching at the rate of the carrier signal frequency, whereas S_4 and S_5 will operate at a frequency equivalent to the fundamental

S_1	S_2	S_3	S_4	S_5	V_{inv}
ON	OFF	OFF	OFF	ON	$+V_{pv}/2$
OFF	ON	OFF	OFF	ON	$+V_{pv}$
OFF	OFF	OFF	ON	ON	0
or (ON)		or (OFF)		or (OFF)	
ON	OFF	OFF	ON	OFF	$-V_{pv}/2$
OFF	OFF	ON	ON	OFF	$-V_{pv}$

Table 1 Inverter Output Voltage during S_1 – S_5 Switch on and off

frequency. Table 1 illustrates the level of V_{inv} during S_1 – S_5 switch on and off. Figure 5 shows Switching pattern for the single-phase five-level

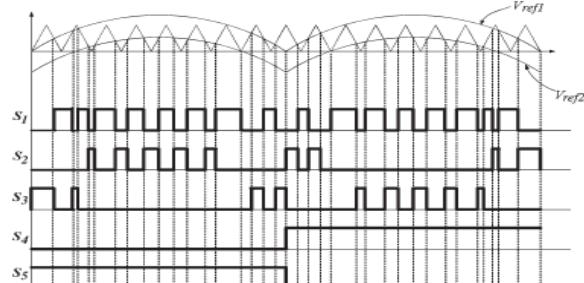


Figure 5 Switching pattern for the single-phase five-level inverter.

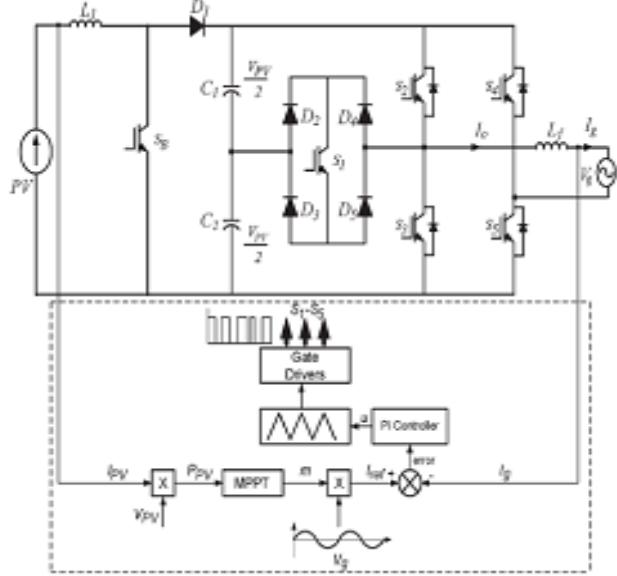


Figure 6 single-phase five-level inverter with PI controller.

The proposed single-phase five-level inverter topology is shown in Fig. 6. The inverter adopts a full-bridge configuration with an auxiliary circuit. PV arrays are connected to the inverter via a dc–dc boost converter. Because the proposed inverter is used in a grid-connected PV system, utility grid is used instead of load. The dc–dc boost converter is used to step up inverter output voltage V_{inv} to be more than $\sqrt{2}$ of grid voltage V_g to ensure power flow from the PV arrays into the grid. A filtering inductance L_f is used to filter the current injected into the grid. The injected current must be sinusoidal with low harmonic distortion. In order to generate sinusoidal current, sinusoidal

PWM is used because it is one of the most effective methods. Sinusoidal PWM is obtained by comparing a high-frequency carrier with a low-frequency sinusoid, which is the modulating or reference signal. The carrier has a constant period; therefore, the switches have constant switching frequency. The switching instant is determined from the crossing of the carrier and the modulating signal.

$$A_{nk} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\alpha_k-2\delta_0}^{\alpha_k+2\delta_0} V(\theta) e^{-jn\theta} d\theta \quad (24)$$

$$\therefore A_{nk} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left\{ - \int_{\alpha_k-2\delta_0}^{\alpha_k-\delta_{1k}} V_s e^{-jn\theta} d\theta + \int_{\alpha_k-\delta_{1k}}^{\alpha_k+\delta_{2k}} V_s e^{-jn\theta} d\theta - \int_{\alpha_k+\delta_{2k}}^{\alpha_k+2\delta_0} V_s e^{-jn\theta} d\theta \right\} \quad (25)$$

$$= (V_s) \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} \right) \left(\frac{-2}{jn} \right) \times \{ e^{-jn\delta_{2k}} - e^{jn\delta_{1k}} + j \sin 2n\delta_0 \} e^{-jn\alpha_k}. \quad (26)$$

$$A_n = \sum_{k=1}^p A_{nk}. \quad (27)$$

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_{\tau=0}^t e(\tau) d\tau \quad (28)$$

$u(t)$ control signal;

$e(t)$ error signal;

t continuous-time-domain time variable;

τ calculus variable of integration;

K_p proportional-mode control gain;

K_i integral-mode control gain.

Implementing this algorithm using a PIC requires one to transform it into the discrete-time domain. Trapezoidal sum

approximation is used to transform the integral term into the discrete-time domain because it is the most straightforward technique. The proportional term is directly used without approximation.

~~$$\text{P term : } K_p e(t) = K_p e(k). \quad (29)$$~~

Time relationship: $t = k * h$
where

h sampling period;

k discrete-time index: $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

For simplification, it is convenient to define new controller gains as

~~$$K_i = K_i h/2 \quad (30)$$~~

from which one can construct the discrete-time PI control

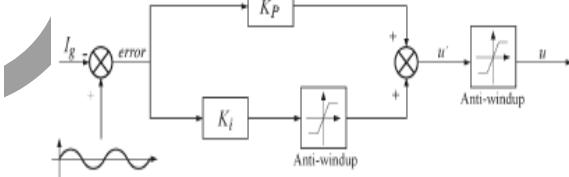


Fig. 7 PI control algorithm implemented in PIC controller.

~~$$\text{I term : } K_i \int_{\tau=0}^t e(\tau) d\tau \cong K_i \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{h}{2} [e(i) + e(i-1)]. \quad (30)$$~~

~~$$K'_i = K_i \frac{h}{2} \quad (31)$$~~

~~$$u(k) = K_p e(t) + K'_i \sum_{i=0}^k [e(i) + e(i-1)]. \quad (32)$$~~

~~$$\text{sum}(k) = \text{sum}(k-1) + [e(k) + e(k-1)] \quad (33)$$~~

~~$$u(k) = K_p e(k) + K'_i \text{sum}(k). \quad (34)$$~~

B. ALGORITHM IMPLEMENTATION

Control signal saturation and integral-mode antiwindup limiting are easily implemented in software. In this work, the control signal itself takes the form of PWM outputs from the PIC. Therefore, the control signal is saturated at the value that corresponds to 100% duty cycle for the PWM. An undesirable side effect of saturating the controller output is the integral-mode windup. When the control output saturates, the integral-mode control term (i.e., the summation) will continue to increase but will not produce a corresponding increase in controller output (and hence will not produce any additional increase in plant response). The integral can become quite large, and it can take a long time before the controller is able to reduce it once the error signal changes sign. The effects of windup

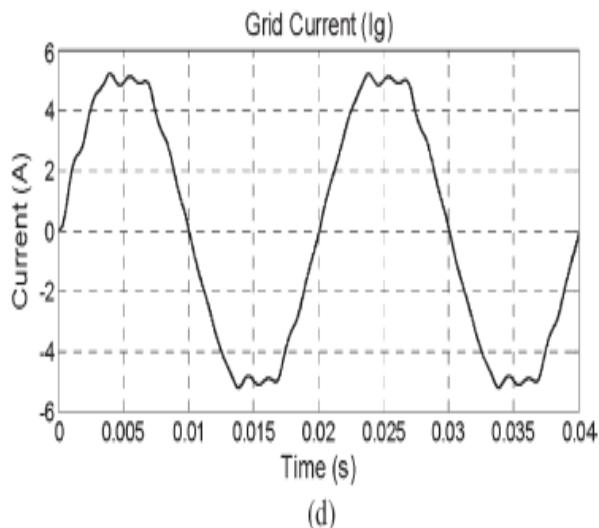


Fig. 7. Fig shows grid current of the circuit

V. SIMULATION RESULTS

Let us consider the following example, inverter circuit involving unipolar switching. It is connected with an R Load as shown below.

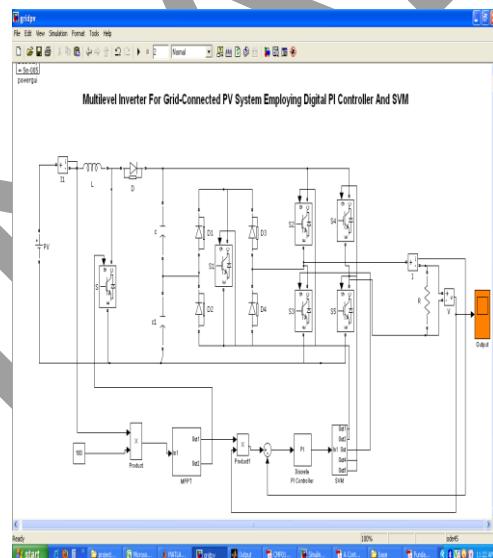


Figure 8 Simulation Circuit Diagram

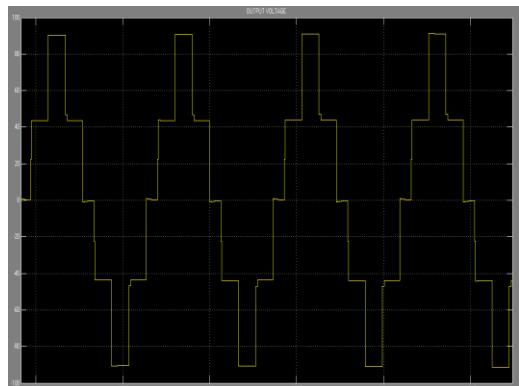


Figure 9 five level Output Waveform the inverter circuit

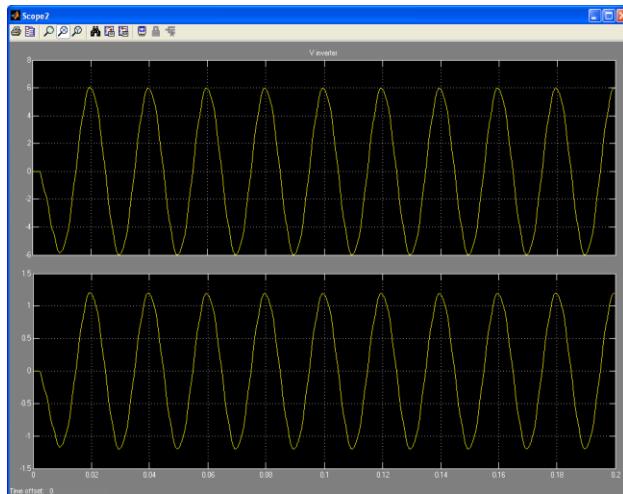


Figure 10 filtered Output Waveform from the inverter

In order to verify that the proposed inverter can be practically implemented in a PV system, simulations were performed by using MATLAB SIMULINK. It also helps to confirm the PWM switching strategy which then can be implemented in a PIC. It consists of two reference signals and a triangular carrier signal. Both the reference signals are compared with the triangular carrier signal to produce PWM switching signals for switches S_1 – S_5 . Note that one leg of the inverter is operating at a high switching rate equivalent to the frequency of the carrier signal, whereas the other leg is operating at the rate of fundamental frequency (i.e., 50 Hz). Figure 8 shows the Simulation Circuit Diagram The S_1 at the auxiliary circuit also operates at the rate of the carrier signal. As mentioned earlier, the

modulation index M will determine the shape of the inverter output voltage V_{inv} and the grid current I_g shows V_{inv} and I_g for different values of M . The dc-bus voltage is set at 400 V ($>\sqrt{2}V_g$) in this case, V_g is 240 V in order to inject current into the grid. V_{inv} is less than $\sqrt{2}V_g$ due to M being less than 0.5. The inverter should not operate at this condition because the current will be injected from the grid into the inverter, rather than the PV system injecting the current into the grid. Figure 9 shows five level Output Waveform the inverter circuit and Figure 10 shows the five level output Waveform the inverter circuit.

VI .CONCLUSION

Improving the output waveform of the inverter reduces its respective harmonic content and, hence, the size of the filter used and the level of electromagnetic interference (EMI) generated by switching operation of the inverter. In recent years, multilevel inverters have become more attractive for researchers and manufacturers due to their advantages over conventional three-level Pulse Width Modulated (PWM) inverters. They offer improved output waveforms, smaller filter size, lower EMI, lower total harmonic distortion (THD).

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